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ABSTRACT

This volume contains five essays on both theory and practical learning techniques for bilingual education and the study of English as a Second Language. In "Bilingual Education: An International, Sociolinguistical Perspective," Joshua Fishman discusses transitional bilingualism, monoliterate bilingualism, partial and full biliterate bilingualism, compensatory programs, enrichment programs, and group maintenance programs. A "Position Paper on the Role of English as a Second Language in Bilingual Education" by the TESOL Organization seeks to promote better understanding and establish a positive professional relationship between the two fields. In "Values Clarification Theory in ESL and Bilingual Education," Kathleen Green discusses some strategies that have been used successfully in a college-level ESL course for foreign students in the United States. In "Language Choice in Bilingual Classrooms," Dorothy Legarreta examines quantitative language choices by teachers and pupils in Spanish bilingual kindergarten classrooms. In "Measuring Values in Multilingual Settings," Jon Jonz seeks to place cultural differences and cultural similarities into clearer perspective and to decrease the probabilitV of the inappropriate application of educational models. General statements are made about the behaviors and beliefs expressed in an article entitled "Cuban Child." In addition, a "cultural index" that was developed in a project is discussed. (SW)

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE:

Perspectives and Practices

E.S.L. & BILINGUAL EDUCATION

6th of a series

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
PERSPECTIVES AND PRACTICES

A Series of Six Texts

English as a Second Language and Bilingual Education

SIXTH OF A SERIES

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FOREWORD

Teaching English as a Second Language: Perspectives and Practices is designed to assist those who work with non-English dominant students by providing resource information relevant to the processes of second language teaching and learning. The articles encompass both theory and practical learning techniques in six general topics and have been compiled in response to increased interest in the education of learners whose native language is other than English. It is becoming more widely recognized that such students can benefit from formal instruction in English as a second language as well as efforts to maintain and utilize their native language and culture. This series replaces the previous Teaching English as a Second Language Series.

This is the sixth of a series of six volumes. Other volumes of the series are the following:

Background and Approaches

Speaking and Understanding

Reading and Writing

Testing

Current Issues in Second Language Teaching

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
PERSPECTIVES AND PRACTICES

A Series of Six Texts

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION: AN INTERNATIONAL, SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

Joshua A. Fishman

With the Bilingual Education Act (signed into law by Lyndon B. Johnson on January 2, 1968), America found itself with a new panacea for "whatever it is" that ails a segment of our economically disadvantaged. The segment that this act (ultimately Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended in 1967, or Public Law 90-247) recognized for special assistance consisted of those "who came from environments where the dominant language is other than English." Although the act does not restrict itself either to the poor or to the Hispanic and Indian populations of the U.S.A., President Johnson did make this restriction when signing the bill into law, and the "Draft Guidelines to the Bilingual Education Act" prepared by USOE for implementing the act did so quite explicitly. Thus, while any hopes (or fears) that the U.S.A. would support bilingual education more generally (see the Proceedings of the Spring 1967 Hearings on S428) were quickly dissipated, the act as such has slowly but surely supported (or, together with state and local authorities co-supported) a steadily growing number of programs.

At this writing, some 220 bilingual education programs are receiving at least partial support under this act, and a like number of others - some that received support in former years and others that have been stimulated by the act indirectly - function entirely on nonfederal funds. Indeed, while five years before passage of the act few envisaged any such possibility, now only five years after its passage, half of our states and very many local education authorities have instituted bilingual

education codes or programs of their own (among them California, Illinois, New York, Texas, Maryland, Massachusetts), and bilingual education has become an established part of the programs of all major language teachers' associations. In the spring of 1973 new bilingual education bills were introduced in conjunction with congressional plans to revise the Elementary and Secondary Educatin Act of 1965. These resulted in a substantial budgetary increase for Title VII at a time when many other educational budgets were cut. Bilingual education has also enjoyed a modicum of publicity in struggles for control of local school boards or as state and local education budget reviews have come to realize that it "costs money" to prepare and obtain the personnel curricula, and materials that bilingual education requires. It is at such junctures that the questions have begun to be raised - as they must inevitably be raised, for all promising educational solution to social problems - "does it work and is it worth it?"

What is Bilingual Education?

In very general terms, bilingual education implies some use of two (or more) languages of instruction in connection with teaching courses other than language per se. Thus, neither the smattering of foreign-langage instruction that FLES (Foreign Language in Elementary Schools) programs have long been providing to many grade schoolers in the U.S. A. nor the smatterings more normally offered subsequently in most American secondary schools, in the course of foreign-language instruction, qualify as bilingual education. However, wherever courses such as mathematics or history or science (or Bible or Talmud) are taught via a language other

than English, while other courses (such as mathematics or history or...) are taught via English, then bilingual education may be said to obtain. However, within this broad definition, it is obvious that vastly different types of progams and program goals can be and are being pursued.

Four Broad Categories of Bilingual Education Programs

It may be instructive to propose (as I have in the past; Fishman and Lovas, 1970) a tentative sociolinguistic typology of bilingual education progams based on four differing kinds of community and school objectives. Each of these types will be briefly illustrated by an existing or proposed bilingual education program for some Spanish-speaking community.* In presenting this typology of bilingual education programs, I would like to distinguish clearly between them and English-as-a-second-language programs. The latter are programs which include no instruction in the student's mother tongue as part of the program.

Another point about this typology is that it is not based on student and schedule characteristics such as proportion of students speaking a certain language and proportion of time devoted to each language. Rather it looks to the kinds of sociolinguistic development implied in the program objectives and suggests that various kinds of programs assume and lead to particular societal rules for the language taught.

Type I: Transitional Bilingualism. In such a program Spanish is used in early grades to the extent necessary to allow pupils to "adjust to school" and/or to "master subject matter" until their skill in English

*Many examples of other than Spanish-related bilingual education at the elementary level are provided in John and Horner, 1971; and in Andersson and Boyer, 1970. An appreciably different (and much more detailed) typography of bilingual education is available in Mackey, 1970.

is developed to the point that it alone can be used as the medium of instruction. Such programs do not strive toward goals of fluency and literacy in both languages with opportunity throughout the curriculum for the continuing improvement toward mastery of each. Rather, they state goals such as "increasing overall achievement of Spanish-speaking students by using both Spanish and English as media of instruction in the primary grades." Such programs (consciously or unconsciously) correspond to the societal objective of language shift and give no consideration to long-range institutional development and support of the mother tongue. An example of such a program can be found in the grant proposal of the Las Cruces (N.M.) School District No. 2 for support of their Sustained Primary Program for Bilingual Students. Perhaps the best way to characterize this program would be to cite the three primary objectives against which the program is to be evaluated:

1. To increase the achievement level of Spanish-speaking youngsters through the use of sustained K-3 program.
2. To determine whether Spanish-speaking youngsters achieve more in a program that utilizes instruction in Both Spanish and English or in a program that is taught in Spanish only.
3. To involve the parents of Spanish-speaking students in the educational program as advisers and learners, thus enriching the home environment of the child.

The entire proposal makes no mention of measuring performance in Spanish or continuing Spanish in the curriculum past grade 3 - or of making any survey of the language situation in the community. Such programs (and there are many of this kind) are basically interested only in transitional bilingualism, i.e., in arriving at the state of English monolingual educational normality just as soon as is feasible without injuring the pupil or arousing the community.

Type II. Monoliterate Bilingualism. Programs of this type indicate goals of development in both languages for aural-oral skills but do not concern themselves with literacy skills in the non-English mother tongue. Thus, such programs emphasize developing fluency in Spanish as a link between home and school, with the school providing recognition and support for the language in the domains of home and neighborhood; but they are not concerned with the development of literacy skills in the non-English mother tongue which would facilitate the child's use of the language in conjunction with work, government,religion or book-culture more generally. This type of program is intermediate in orientation between language shift and language maintenance. The likely societal effect of such a program might be one of language maintenance in the short run, but, given the exposure of students to American urban society which stresses and rewards literacy, it might well lead to shift. One example of such a program can be found in Christine McDonald's proposal for the El Rancho United School District in Pico Rivera, California. The program is designed for pre-school children, and the parents' and children's home language is used throughout its entire course. However, the focus of the program would be on ultimately developing literacy in English with no reference to similar development in Spanish. Bilingual programs for American Indians frequently fall into this category because, in many instances, there is no body of written literature for the child to learn in his mother tongue. Obviously the intellectual imbalance between English literacy and mother-tongue illiteracy poses a difficult situation for any language-maintenance-oriented community, particularly if it is exposed to occupational mobility through English.

Type III: Biliterate Bilingualism, Partial. This kind of program seeks fluency and literacy in both languages, but literacy in the mother tongue is restricted to certain subject matter, most generally that related to the ethnic group and its cultural heritage. In such a program, reading and writing skills in the mother tongue are commonly developed in relation to the social sciences, literature, and the arts, but not in science and mathematics. This kind of program is clearly one of language maintenance coupled with a certain effort at culture maintenance (perhaps even cultural development should the program result in the production of journalism, poetry, and other literary art forms). In general, the program in the Dade County (Florida) Public Schools (as described in the administrative guideline) exemplifies this type of bilingual education. (See also Rojas, 1966.) The program provides special instruction in English in all skills for all Spanish-speaking students who need it. Additionally, the program provides formal instruction in reading and writing Spanish with emphasis on Spanish literature and civilization as subject matter. Other areas of the curriculum do not utilize Spanish as a medium of instruction. Other programs of this type are conducted by numerous American ethnic groups in their own supplementary or parochial schools." Such programs imply that while non-English mother tongues are serious vehicles of moder literate throught, they are not related to control of the technological and economic spheres. The latter are

*Over a thousand such programs under other than Jewish auspices are reviewed in Fishman, 1966, Chapter 5: "The Ethnic Group School and Mother Tongue Maintenance" (pp. 92-126).

considered to be the preserve of the majority whose language must be mastered if these spheres are to be entered. Nationalist protest movements since the mid-nineteenth century have consistently rejected any such limiting implication.

Type IV: Biliterate Bilingualism, Full. In this kind of program, students are to develop all skills in both languages in all domains. Typically, both languages are used as media of instruction for all subjects (except in teaching the languages themselves). Clearly this program is directed at language maintenance and development of the minority language. From the viewpoint of much of the linguistically and psychologically oriented literature this is the ideal type of program, since, in the words of one specialist, it results in "balanced, coordinate bilinguals-children capable of thinking and feeling in either of two languages independently."

Programs such as these enable us to ponder the difference between developing balanced competency in individuals and producing a balanced bilingual society. Though highly bilingual societies might find individuals with highly developed competency in all skills and domains very useful in a variety of roles (teachers, translators, business representatives), a fully balanced bilingual speech community seems to be a theoretical impossibility. Balanced competence implies languages that are functionally equivalent, and no society can be motivated to maintain two languages if they are really functionally redundant. Thus, this type of program does not seem to have a clearly articulated goal with respect to societal reality.

Several examples of this type of program exist, but all of them are small pilot or experimental programs. The Coral Way Elementary School (Dade County, Florida) and the Laredo Unified Consolidated Independent School District (Texas) are two frequently cited instances which exemplify this kind of program (Gaarder, 1967; Michel, 1967; Andersson, 1968), not to mention much more recent experiments by Lambert. In the Coral Way School, students take all subjects in both languages, English in the morning from one teacher, Spanish in the afternoon from another teacher. At Laredo Unified, students receive all instruction from the same teacher who uses English half the day and Spanish the other half. The evidence so far suggests that these programs are quite successful. but looking at them fromthe view of the functional needs of the community, there is serious reservation in my mind whether they should serve as ideal models for large-scale American programs.

Clearly, few American educators or laymen have pondered the four alternatives presented above, let alone their societal implications and requirements. In part this is due to the fact that most American bilingual education programs are of Types I and III above and, therefore, are minimalist insofar as their non-English-language/culture components are concerned. In part this is because Americans tend to view bilingual education as if it were a strictly American sin or virtue; i.e., without any historical or cultural perspective whatsoever.

Why Bilingual Education?

It may be possible to examine at least some of the worldwide and timewide span of bilingual education while reviewing the rationales

advanced for it and the evidence pertaining thereto. Clearly, most American bilingual education programs are viewed as academically compensatory to begin with, and hopefully, therefore also as socioeconomically compensatory for the disadvantaged minority-group child from non-English-speaking environments (Gaarder, 1970).

Compensatory Programs. This constriction of bilingual education to overcoming "diseases of the poor," distasteful though it may be, has its well-established precedents in other climes and in other centuries, but most particularly in Europe since the Reformation, wherever the expansion of educational opportunity (or obligation) was stymied by the fact that the official language of education was not always the mother tongue of students new to the educational system. In such circumstances, whether in early-modern France or Germany, in turn-of-the century or in recent-day Yucatan, Manila, or Moncton, the same claim has been advanced: start the learner off in the language he knows best. The more rapid progress made as a result, insofar as developing learning confidence and satisfaction is concerned, will then pay off in terms of much more rapid progress when the majority language is turned to (and as some would have it, when more serious educational work is begun). Thus, this approach, when transferred to the American context, typically claims that "learning English"and "getting educated" are not one and the same and that it is worth pursuing the latter via the mother tongue until the former can be tackled and, indeed, that the one will facilitate the other.

A serious evaluation of the above claim is still to come, if by

"serious" we mean an opportunity to disentangle the mother tongue effect per se from the social, cultural, economic, linguistic, and educational contexts in which it is necessarily embedded. What little research there has been in connection with this claim indicates that there are certainly circumstances under which it is supported,* but that, on the whole, bilingual education is too frail a device, in and of itself, to significantly alter the learning experiences of the minority-mother-tongue-poor in general or their majority-language-learning-success in particular. It is of course true that foisting a language other than their own upon such children is equivalent to imposing an extra burden upon those least capable of carrying it. However, precisely because there are so many other pervasive reasons why such children achieve poorly the goals of majority-oriented and dominated schools (and societies), removing this extra burden above-and leaving all else as it was-does not usually do the trick, particulary when the teachers, curricula, and materials for bilingual education are as nonoptimal as they currently usually are. My own feeling is that just as there is no simple school-based solution to the learning problems of the alienated-in-general, we cannot and should not expect bilingual education to provide such a solution for the non-English-mother-tongue-alienated-poor in particular.

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*Among the supportive evidence cited by John and Horner is that contained in reports by Modiano (1968), Osterberg (1961), Pryor (1967), Richardson (1968), pertaining to Mexican, Indians, Swedes, Mexican-Americans, and Cuban-Americans, respectively. In Osterberg's project young speakers of Pitean (a nonstandard Swedish dialect) learning to read in their dialect fared better than Pitean-speaking children learning to read the literary dialect. Indirect support is also available from other programs that employ a nonstandard dialect for transitional or monoliterate purposes.

If there is a sufficient rationale for bilingual education, and I believe there is, it must be found on other than compensatory grounds, particularly inasmuch as most compensatory programs are merely transitional or monoliterate and,therefore, hardly constitute bilingual education in a context in which it is most likely to succeed. Who among us would care to defend the contribution of (or the prospects for) science education or social studies education on the basis of its effectiveness with alienated and dislocated populations such as those receiving compensatory bilingual education?

Enrichment Programs. When we turn our gaze from the poor to the middle class and above, we find bilingual education typically far more intensive and justified not on grounds of compensation but of enrichment "To them that hath shall be given." Those who are relatively secure in their social, economic, and political power can afford and, indeed, often seek an additional educational and cultural exposure to that afforded them by their own mother tongue and immediate milieu. Thus, rather than merely being a palliative for the poor, bilingual education has been long and widely viewed by advantaged groups as "an elitist thing." Whether we are interested in the classical world (E. Glyn Lewis) or in the modern, in the West or in the East, bilingual education has been savored by the fortunate few and, apparently, found to be very good indeed.*

*Two recent and well-done evaluative case studies of such programs, both with general positive findings, are to be found in Mackey, 1972 and in Lambert and Tucker, 1972.

There have been several attempts to expand such efforts in recent decades so that the enrichment formerly reserved for the patrician might be made more widely available. Most of these have not been exposed to research evaluations, but the impressions of serious and sophisticated observers are positive regarding the bilingual schools of Singapore (largely in Chinese and English), or of LWC schools in the Soviet Union (Lewis, 1972), of areas in Wales, and of the Yeshiva movement in the U.S.A.** It is felt that the intellective and non-intellective results obtained are generally as good as or better than those in monolingual schools for students of comparable backgrounds. However, the one serious study of truly widespread compulsory bilingual education, the one conducted in Ireland (Macnamara, 1966),disclosed negative findings as well. Because of the time and effort invested in teaching Irish per se, as well as in teaching via Irish, to children who neither knew it nor used it out of school, elementary school graduates were on the average a year behind students of comparable backgrounds in English with regard to tested achievement in English and in mathematical problem solving-at the same time that their active grasp of Irish remained rather marginal at best. Once again, it is not possible to say, on the basis of one such study, whether it is the over-extension of bilingual education per se that exacted this toll or whether it was exacted by the particular context of widespread disinterest in and perceived uselessness of Irish in present-day Ireland.

** The bilingual nature of traditional Jewis education does not properly fit into our discussion here because, on the one hand, it was not rationalized on the grounds of enrichment, and on the other, it was a reflection of within-group bilingualism (Yiddish and Loshen Koydesh) rather than of between-group bilingualism such as the best characterizing all the other examples cited in this paper.

On the whole, I would tend to favor the latter interpretation of the Irish findings (primarily because it agrees with my own preliminary findings based on international data) and to believe that well-disposed and supported schools, serving well-disposed and reasonably comfortable clienteles, can carry on bilingual education as successfully as most others carry on monolingual education and that the resulting educational product may be deemed well worth the additional cost and effort that may be entailed.

Group-Maintenance Programs. No matter how successful enrichment-oriented bilingual education for the relatively comfortable and secure may be, it still does not come to grips with the problems of self-perceived minorities, poor or otherwise. What spokesmen for some of the latter have been emphasizing (and once more, throughout the world and across time) is neither "compensation" nor "enrichment" but rather the preservation and enhancement of the group as such. However, bilingual education rationalized in group-maintenance and culture-maintenance terms is also considered to help the individual learner. A minority student who is confident of and recognized in his more intimate primary-group membership relates more positive both to school and to society (both of which are majority-dominated) and, as a result,, profits more from schooling. There is hardly any research evidence pertaining to such claims in conjunction with bilingual education, although the view itself is a long- and well-established one, particularly in the context of cultural pluralism and minority rights. In this context, however, it is primarily an article of faith, a moral and ethical position, a basic

social right, and as such, not likely to benefit seriously from, or to be much subjected to, objective and empirical research.

The common argument against group-maintenance-oriented bilingual education is that it is conducive to sociopolitical tensions, at the very least, and to sociopolitical ruptures, at worst. This may well be so, in certain minority-majority contexts at particular times and in particular places and, therefore, would seem to merit more or less consideration as local circumstances dictate. Certainly the demand for group-maintenance-oriented bilingual education has been advanced by both groups and individuals who have had only sociocultural goals rather than sociopolitical ones. As a result of such demands the growth of mother-tongue instruction for minority-group children, at least during the early elementary school years, has been truly phenomenal during the past quarter century and may become worldwide before this century is out (Chapter V, this volume). The result of this movement has been spawned thereby or related thereto, and it would seem to me to be more wicked than wise to raise any such bugaboo in conjunction with discussions of bilingual education in the U.S.A. today. The right of large concentration of parents to have their children educated in their own mother tongue at public expense; the right of individuals to defend and protect the primary goups to which they belong most intimately, at the same time that they hold and cultivate multiple loyalties to more inclusive groups; the right of much smaller groups to coexist within the large groups with which they have symbiotic ties-all these must not be philosophically beclouded by possibly baseless innuendos. When coterritorial groups move toward separatism, it is almost never because of conflicts over bilingual education.

Like much else that has transpired in American education during the past decade, bilingual education has come about as a result of the confluence of organized pressures and innovative initiatives. Like much else that is promising in American education today, bilingual education suffers from four serious lacks: a lack of funds (Title VII has been pitifully starved),a lack of trained personnel, a lack of evaluated experience (with respect to curricula, materials, and methods) and a lack of sociohistorical perscpective. It is not and cannot be a cure-all for the myriad disadvantages faced by the millions of poor non-English-mother-tongue children in our society. It could possibly be a powerful enrichment for the many other millions of more affluent American children but such is our current blindness withrespect to it that we largely insist on seeing it merely as "something for the poor." Nevertheless, it is in this latter general enrichment manifestation, as well as in the context of the self-maintenance efforts of our various non-Anglo cultural groups, that its true contribution to American education and society will ultimately be made.

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POSITION PAPER ON THE ROLE OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

by the TESOL Organization

> A fundamental tenet of bilingual education is that a person living in a society whose language and culture differ from his own must be equipped to participate meaningfully in the mainstream of that society. It should not be necessary for him to sacrifice his rich native language and culture to achieve such participation. Rather, we should utilize available language skills and thought processes to foster intellectual development while developing English language proficiency.
>
> - New York State Regents Positon Paper on Bilingual Education

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

TESOL, as an international organization of educators dedicated to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages, has historically supported bilingual education in its policy, programs, and publications. It recognizes the pedagogical soundness and viability of bilingual education as an educational process which: focuses on the student's total development, capitalizes on the proficiency of a student's native language and familiarity with his or her own culture, and simultaneously develops the student's competencies in the second language and culture.

TESOL further recognizes that the role of language in the educational process must be viewed from two instructional points of view:

1. language as subject
2. language as a medium of instruction

It is the latter role which often causes confusion in the minds of those who create the false dichotomy of bilingual education versus English as a second language.

Bilingual teachers and teachers of English as a second language must accept a partnership relationship in bilingual education. It is the professional obligation of the aforementioned educators to join forces in providing equal educational opportunities for all their students. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to examine the role of English as a second language in bilingual education in an attempt to promote better understanding and establish a positive professional relationship between the two groups.

This paper represents TESOL's goal of maintaining and fostering cooperation by:

1. presenting the operational definitions and characteristics of bilingual education and English as a second language;
2. clarifying the interrelationship of bilingual education and English as a second language;
3. establishing the position of the international organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages regarding bilingual education;
4. identifying activities to assure the successful achievement of the stated goal.

DEFINITIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

Three educational approaches are presently being utilized to teach students of limited English proficiency in the United States:

1. Bilingual instruction including an English as a second language component.
2. Monolingual instruction including an English as a second language component.

3. Monolingual instruction without an English as a second language component.

By English as a second language is meant "the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages."[1] The recommended implementation of such instruction includes: A. Incorporation of the cultural aspects of the students' backgrounds into meaningful language learning experiences; B. Teaching vocabulary and structures relevant to students' learning experiences; C. Application of English as a second language techniques to content areas taught through the second language.

The most commonly accepted definiton of bilingual education in the United States is:

> ...the use of two languages, one of which is English, as mediums of instruction for the same pupil population in a well-organized program which encompasses all or part of the curriculum and includes the study of the history and culture associated with the mother tongue. A complete program develops and maintains the children's self-esteem and a legitimate pride in both cultures.[2]

Bilingual education recognized that many students in the school system are monolingual or dominant in a language other than English and may be at different stages of development in each of the two languages. It, therefore, provides a process whereby the linguistic and cultural resources

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[1] James E. Alatis, "The Compatibility of TESOL and Bilingual Education," in *English as a Second Language in Bilingual Education*, ed. by James E. Alatis and Kristie Twaddell, Washington, D. C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (1976).

[2] U.S. Office of Education, *Manual for Project Applicants and Grantees.*

the student brings to the school are used as tools for learning in the content areas while at the same time the students acquire proficiency needed in English to eanable them to use it as a learning tool.

Of the three educational approaches listed above, the organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages recommends the first,bilingual instruction including an English as a second language component, as the preferred model for instructing students of limited English proficiency, wherever feasible. It is also recognized that the second, monolingual instruction including an English as a second language component, is necessary in some cases. Under no circumstances does the third, monolingual instruction without an English as a second language component, provide equal educational opportunities to students of limited English proficiency, and it is categorically rejected as an alternative instructional model for their education.

Bilingual programs fall into two categories, transitional and maintenance. Transitional and maintenance bilingual programs are similar in the initial stages of implementation, but differ in their ultimate objectives. Both recognize the need to teach:

- the students' dominant language as a first language
- the content matter through the dominant language
- the history and cultural heritage of both linguistic groups
- English as a second language

The difference between transitional and maintenance bilingual education becomes apparent upon examination of the expected final outcomes of each program. The transitional program provides instruction in and through the student's dominant language only until the student has

acquired sufficient proficiency in English to enable him to function effectively in an English monolingual educational setting. The maintenance bilingual program establishes the development of the two languages throughout the educational process and sets functional bilingualism and biculturalism as an important educational goal. The two languages are used as tools for acquiring knowledge and conceptualizing throughout the student's education.

In the United States English as a second language is an essential and integral part of bilingual education. The English as a second language component of the bilingual education program recognizes that the student may have developed proficiency in one or all of the areas of language learning in his mother tongue. The program, therefore, is designed to capitalize on this proficiency in order to accelerate the process of acquiring the second language - English.

The organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages supports and promotes the concept that local communities, especially parents of the children in the system, have the right to participate in policy decisions concerning the type of instructional program best suited for their children.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The international organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages is committed to promoting excellence among all educators involved in instructing students of limited English proficiency.

The success of any educational program depends on the commitment and preparation of the teachers involved. Successful language instruction must be carefully planned and implemented by qualified teachers; it cannot be

left to chance. There are many commonalities between the expected competencies and attitudes of the bilingual teacher and the teacher of Englsih as a second language. There are, however, some discretely different requirements for the preparation of each. It must be recognized that the two teaching professionals are specialists in their own right and compose a team working toward the same long-range goals for the same student population.

STRATEGIES TO FOSTER COOPERATION

It is evident that the roles of the bilingual and English as a second language teachers are complementary and that their cooperation is essential for the successful progress of students of limited English proficiency.

Since bilingual education is a total educational experience, it involves a team effort, and the English as a second language teacher is part of an instructional team.

In order to promote and achieve understanding and cooperation among bilingual and English as a second language educators the organization will take the following definitive steps, or reaffirm their importance in those cases where they have already been initiated:

1. Articles and presentations on bilingual education will continue to be regularly included in all official organization publications and conferences.
2. Cooperation and participation in publications and conferences on bilingual education will continue to be encouraged and supported.
3. Bilingual educators will continue to be encouraged to participate fully in all organizational matters.

4. Legislation will be supported which promotes bilingual education in the United States
5. Teachers of English as a second language will be encouraged to study the cultures and languages of their respective student populations.
6. Local affiliates will be encouraged to organize institutes and activities which promote second language learning and cultural studies among English as a second language teachers.
7. The TESOL organization will maintain and enhance the reciprocal liaison which has been established with the National Association of Bilingual Education (NABE).
8. Local affiliates will be encouraged to establish and maintain liaison with affiliates of NABE which may be organized in their respective geographic areas, and to encourage and welcome liaison activities in return.
9. Efforts will be made to promote bilingual education including English as a second language as a viable educational model in and of itself, and to remove the stigma that it is compensatory education for the disadvantaged.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages recognizes that the goal of education is to provide the students in accordance with their full potential, with the knowledge necessary to liberate them to make choices within the society or societies in which they choose to live.

Students of limited English proficiency must be provided with op-

portunities to learn subject matter commensurate with their potential, age and grade level and the opportunity of learning the language of the dominant society - English.

These educational goals can be more effectively fulfilled in the cognitive and affective domains through institution in the students' dominant language and culture and instruction designed to develop full communicative competence in both their mother tongue and English.

Therefore, the international organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages endorses and supports the bilingual approach to education, recognizing that it provides students of limited English proficiency with equal educational opportunities. English as a second language is an integral and essential component of bilingual-bicultural programs in the United States.

The international organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages urges all those involved in the education of students whose dominant language is not English to join forces in improving and promoting bilingual education.

Presented by the Committee on the Role of English as a Second Language in Bilingual Education, Carmen A. Perez, Chairman. The following persons acted as contributors and discussants in the development of this paper: George Blanco, Elaine Chatagnier, Nancy Frankfort, Arturo Gutierrez, Adele Martinez, Genis Melendez, Awilda Orta, Carmen A. Perez, Anita Pfeiffer, Albar Pena, Maria Ramirez, Sonia Rivera, Norma Rodriguez, Gilbert Sanchez, Ramon Santiago, Jose Vazquez.

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VALUES CLARIFICATION THEORY IN ESL AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Kathleen Green*

Because of the close relationship between languages and culture, language learning necessarily involves culture learning. The culture of an individual or group is determined by his or its values. Bilingual/bicultural education requires that student and teacher understand their own values as well as those of each other. One method of achieving this understanding is through the use of values clarification, some strategies that have been used successfully in a college-level English as a Second Language course for foreign students in the United States are discussed. The versatility of these strategies is demonstrated through examples of how the same strategies used with the college-level students can be adapted for use in a bilingual elementary school classroom.

Few linguists or language teachers would disagree that there is a relationship between language and culture. Whether language determines culture or culture determines language has been a subject of much discussion. Grammarians, like Fillmore, who is searching for deep structure linguistic similarities (Fillmore 1968: 1-88), and psychologists, like Lambert, who believes that psychological similarities between cultures are more evident than differences (Lambert 1974), admit that cultural differences do exist (Lambert 1974) and that language is the vehicle whereby a person acquires his knowledge of those differences.

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He learns these differences either indirectly by having someone tell him the differences or directly through his own attempts to communicate with people who speak different languages or dialects than he does. There is absolutely nothing like the failure to communicate ideas or needs to another person to make us aware of our own differences, our own existential alienation and isolation from our audience. Conversely, success in communication, whether it be a baby's crying to be fed or changed or an adult's communication of his innermost feelings, creates a feeling of intimacy and unity with the audience. Thus, a person's failures and successes in communication, determine his feelings of "we" and "they," "us" and "them." It follows (though I have no satistical proof of this) that the more people with whom a person feels he communicates successfully, the more people he will consider to be "we's," persons like himself. Thus, he widens his cultural boundaries. If his ability to communicate crosses certain linguistic, geographical, and socio-economical boundaries, he is considered to have become bilingual and bicultural.

Values Clarification Theory

How does values clarification theory fit into the communication process?

First, let us look at what values clarification theory is. Values clarification is based on the principle that what we do is determined by our values and beliefs. Unfortunatley, most of us are unclear about what our basic values are; so when we are faced with making a decision between two alternative courses of action, we often find it difficult.

Values clarification, as first proposed by Louis Rath, looks at values not from the stative point of view of content, but from the dynamic point of view of the process of valuing (Simon 1972:3). It advocates strategies which can be employed to examine the processes people use to establish their values. Often these strategies are also a means whereby a person can discover what values lie beneath those values he consciously affirms.

Values clarification strategies are not ends in themselves. They are meant to be used with other subject matter, for our beliefs as to the "value" of the subject matter determines what subject matter we learn.[1]

Use of values clarification in the classroom requires a teacher who (1) is willing to examine his/her own values; (2) can accept opinions different from his/her own; (3) encourages a classroom atmosphere of honesty and respect; and (4) is a good listener. As I see it, the qualities that will foster enthusiasm for the subject matter and better communication among students between the students and teacher. These two criteria seem to me to be basic to motivating a student to learn a foreign language.

Let us examine how the above ideas might be used in two different kinds of language learning situations. First, we shall look at the use of values clarification in a college grammar-based composition class for foreign students; then, let us look at some possibilities for its use with an elementary school class of bilingual students.

College Level ESL

One of the major problems in the college-level English as a second language class is the foreign students with an ability to express the

[1] Lambert (1974) applies this concept to facility in language learning.

most complex ideas in their own language suddenly find themselves in the position of having to communicate in a language in which they have only a rudimentary knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical structures. The teacher must constantly find ways of convincing the student that he realizes that the student has intelligent, worthwhile thoughts, even though his ability to use the language is minimal. In a class with a values clarification orientation, this problem is partly solved as a part of the class. The teacher conveys the idea that he himself does not know "everything about everything" and welcomes his students' input into his knowledge about the world. One way that I have found to do this is by using various values clarification questions as composition topics. Simon (1972) states that values clarification processes involve.

Prizing one's beliefs and behaviors

1. prizing and cherishing
2. publicly affirming, when appropriate

Choosing one's beliefs and behaviors

3. choosing from alternatives
4. choosing after consideration of consequences
5. choosing freely

Acting on one's beliefs

6. acting
7. acting with a pattern, consistency, and repetition

Composition topics based on these processes require students to make choices and to affirm those choices. Because values involve a variety of subject areas (Simon 1972: 15, politics, religion, work, leisure time,

school, love, sex, family, possessions, race, war, peace, rules, etc.) there is always something about which each student has sufficient knowledge to write a composition. Furthermore, because values clarification stresses choice-making, the student is free to choose what aspect of a topic he wishes to talk about and how much he wants to say. He is not forced to accept the values of the author of a text as he would if he were writing a supposedly "free" composition like the following: "Write a paragraph beginning, 'The future of the world is perilous, but not hopeless.'" (Robinson 1967: 114). Finally, while values clarification topics allow the student freedom of choice in thinking, they also allow the teacher freedom of choice in their use because they can be adapted to teach a variety of grammatical structure.

Here are some of the techniques I found successful with college-level students.

The first exercise was called "The Moon Problem." In this exercise, students were divided into small groups (3-4) students) to discuss a sheet in which they were presented with the problem of being lost on the moon and having to decide , as an astronaut crew, which of fifteen things are important for their survival trek to their space ship (NTL Institute,1970). Students rank order the items from most important to least important. While there is usually little question as to the most important item, the ranking of the other fourteen is largely a matter of personal choice with no right or wrong answers. As members of the group, students must convince the other students of what is important and be willing to listen to the expertise of fellow group members. Students in the sciences are able to use their technical knowledge, while students with other knowledge, such as English vocabulary or verbal persuasion skill, can use

these talents in the discussion. The students combine their vocabularies for use in understanding the problem; they become involved in a task which requires communication with other members of the group; they practice both reading and communicaton skills in an atmosphere where they are involved in helping each other learn.

After the discussion of the Moon Problem, which should take at least thirty minutes of class time, students are asked to write a composition about the moon in which they are knowledgeable. Some areas I suggested were a scientific description of the moon, the value of going to the moon, the significance of the historical event of man's landing on the moon, and a legend about the moon from their country. The compositions I received ranged from an essay on the connection of the moon with poetry and love to a description of the moon's soil content, an essay praising the United States' technical progress, a biographical account of one student's activities at the time of the first moon landing, a review of science fiction about the moon, and a description of the in-class problem of moon survival. As can be seen, this topic offers an excellent opportunity for the teacher to discover the student's interests, rhetorical preferences (argument, description, analysis, etc.), and their basic compositional skllls. It also provides the teacher with an opportunity to reinforce the idea that all of the students' ideas are worthwhile and that corrections on themes will be based on how well English is used to convey the ideas, not on whether the teacher agrees with the ideas. Students obviously found the topic broad enough, most seemed to enjoy it, and at least one remembered it as his favorite composition topic.

To teach adjectives and intensifiers in descriptions, the device of student-constructed riddles was used. First, students were arbitrarily assigned people to describe, such as their English teachers or commonly known world figures. A contest was held in which students guessed the answers to the riddles of their classmates. The student who gained the most points was the winner. (Points were given for being able to guess from other students' descriptions and for the number of people who could guess from the student's own description.) After analyzing some of the mistakes made in this first exercise and after providing more explanation of descriptive techniques, I wrote an example of description of myself. In a second riddle contest, students had to describe themselves in such a way that others, although not given the obvious details of name or country of origin, could guess who they were. Thus, students had to make choices about what characteristics they felt would describe themselves and what characteristics others would see.

The use of descriptive riddles led naturally to the making of comparisons. Basic comparative forms were presented in a sample essay about the physical and behavioral changes of a pet. (At least in the United States pets are a suitable subject for such attention!) Then, students were asked to write their own essays on something that was changing, comparing its past to its present. Another way to initiate this activity using values clarification strategies would be to list "Twenty Things I Like to Do" (Simon 1972: 30) and mark them for "things I liked to do five years ago" or "things my parents also enjoy." Students could then write a paper comparing their past preferences to their present preferences or the taste of their parents to their own tastes.

Comparisons are an excellent method of examining values, but the use of comparisons should not imply positive or negative traits in an individual culture, or subject; however, a teacher can fall into this trap. To avoid this, one class was devoted to showing how comparisons could be used in paragraphs with different purposes. The paragraphs included one that presupposed that the author's purpose was to convince his reader, another that was merely informative, and another that emphasized imaginative description (poetic metaphor). Thus, the students could see how the writer's purpose determined his choice of comparative forms and his choice of what to compare in the paragraph.

Of course, the most often employed use of comparisons, and especially superlatives, is persuasion. So, students were given an opportunity to use these forms in a composition entitled "The Best Country in the World." When assigning this composition, I stressed that students might choose any country, but that they should give reasons why it was better than other countries, and why they chose it as the best. Allowing students to choose which country they wanted gave them a choice of a wider range of values to express than if they had been asked to write on "My good experiences in the United States" or "Why I miss my country." Of course, many students chose to write about the United Stated or their native land, but many ventured into far-off places. (One Polish student wrote about New Zealand, and a French student titled his work "The Land of the Imagination.")

An even more personal essay, in that it requires the student to examine what he values about himself, would be one of the topic of "What

I Do Better than Anyone Else" or "What I Do Best."[2] Both types of composition offer the student an opportunity to use both comparative and superlative forms. He also must decide whether he wishes to persuade his reader of his talents or merely describe them. Although the exercise is a type of forced choice (Simon 1972: 94), in that the student must decide what his primary talent is, he does have the option of comparing himself with other people (this may be highly objectionable in some cultures.) or simply comparing what he is able to do with what he is unable to do. One of the paralinguistic facts about American culture according to Christina Bratt Paulston (1974) is that Americans can ask each other all sorts of personal questions, but the person asked is allowed to evade or lie about the answer. This assignment offers the teacher an opportunity for teaching this cultural idiosyncrasy. The teacher should stress that any qualities presented, no matter how trivial (a value decision) or humorous (one student suggested that he would title his paper "What I Do Best Is Sleep") are acceptable as long as the student develops the idea fully with reasons to support his statements.

Another way of teaching students about American culture, and especially how we settle our differences, is to use worksheets based on news events which demonstrate conflicting values in our society. For example, as a worksheet on subject-verb number concord, I wrote a description of the Wounded Knee Trial in St. Paul, Minnesota. The description emphasized how the different participants felt about choosing jury members and how the general public felt about the American Indian Movement. After discussing the worksheet in class, I asked students to

[2]Simon, based on the "I am Proud Whip," p. 134. A whip is a kind of rapid chain drill in which students must finish the sentence "I am proud that I can ..." or "I am proud of..."

write on "My First Encounter with the American Indian." The papers revealed that many students did, indeed, have sterotypes of Indians based on American westerns and James Fenimore Cooper, but they also revealed that being in this country had influenced their previously held beliefs. Although for many students this was an exercise demonstrating how the media influence values, one student wrote an essay on his actual physical encounter with American Indians and how that influenced his beliefs.

While it may seem that the primary purpose of the above exercise is to teach American culture or how our values are influenced by our experiences, it is a particularly adaptable method for teaching a variety of grammatical items. The teacher can construct the worksheet using either cloze or multiple-choice techniques to demonstrate the correct use of such diverse items as the use of articles, tense endings, passive versus active voice, concord, the use of modals, punctuation, etc. He can then concentrate on correcting the themes for those items which were practiced on the worksheet.

Another extremely valuable use of values clarification techniques is in teaching the meaning of the modals and their correct use. Since modals are used to convey the speaker's attitudes, they are a necessity in a compositon where a student is asked to write about his beliefs and values. An especially good way to use value strategies in this area is to introduce the idea of wishing, of choosing preferred conditions. This is excellent for teaching the use of modals in the conditional. Two compositions were assigned with wishing as a basic theme. The first was "What Would You Be If You Could Be Anything" or What Would

You Do If You Could Do Anything" and the second was "If I Were President of the United States I Would ..." The first two offered the student the opportunity to make use of *were, could and would* in conditional sentences. This second topic, "If I Were President of the United States I Would ..." is an unfinished sentence (Simon 1972: 241) which elicited not only the *would* form, but also the student's opinion of the American political system. Obviously, other values could be elicited by changing the statement to "If I Were Rich, I Would...," "If I Were a Member of the Opposite Sex, I Would...," "If I Were Seventy Years Old, I Would..." or "If I Were Going to Die Tomorrow, I Would...". The teacher should take care when assigning this type of composition that the values elicited are not too risky for the student to express. For instance, some foreign students might feel freer about giving their honest opinion about the President of the United States than about their own leaders, others just the opposite. The teacher must judge for himself which "I wish..." or "I would..." items would elicit a suitable volume of response.

One final word should be said about using values clarification techniques in the ESL classroom. Public affirmation is an integral part of value formation (Simon 1972: 19). Every opportunity should be given students to share their opinions in class, but they should not be penalized for wishing to keep their opinions to themselves. One method of sharing compositions is to invite those students who have written particularly good or interesting compositions to make corrections of their compositions and make copies to share with the whole class. It should be made clear that they don't have to share their work if they

don't want to do so. It should also be made clear that the copies the class sees are *corrected* copies, so that other class members do not feel that they are so inferior in English ability as compared to other students that they might as well give up. Special skills that the writers do show, such as sticking to the topic, paragraph organization, sentence variety, can be emphasized as examples of why the work was chosen and the kinds of things all students should try to include in their writing. This sharing process accomplishes two goals: (1) it offers the student positive reinforcement of his communication act; (2) it assures students thay they are able to communicate their ideas in English.

My experience with basing my classroom teaching on values clarification theory and using the above techniques was very successful. The classroom atmosphere was exciting and enjoyable. Students were able to work together, sharing their varied knowledge of English. They felt free to tell me when they were having trouble understanding what I was teaching and to ask questions about things they didn't understand about English. Although they did eventually turn them in, and they did their own work. Some of them made only average progress in improving their grammar, spelling, or punctuation, but they all demonstrated an ability to use the English language to convey not only thoughts but also feelings. I learned a lot about my students which increased my enjoyment of my task and which I hope also increased theirs.

Bilingual Education

After reading the above, one might say, "Well, I'm convinced that values clarification theory works with college students learning English to further their studies in the United States, but aren't they a pretty

sophisticated group? Do you really think this will work with elementary school bilingual students?"

The answer is an emphatic "Yes." One of the fascinating things about values clarification strategies is their amazing adaptability for any age group. Furthermore, a teacher who bases his teaching on values clarification must create the kind of classroom atmosphere that is conductive to learning. Studies have shown that it is the teacher's attitudes and expectations of the child which most influences his ability to learn (Adkins 1971:26). Moreover, a class of Anglos and non-Anglos examining their attitudes in an atmosphere of mutual respect seems an excellent way to create bicultural understanding of those cultural aspects Sancho refers to as "intangibles." (Sancho 1974)

As examples of how values clarification strategies could be used in a bilingual elementary school classroom of Anglos and Chicanos, I would like to take some of the techniques I used in the college classroom and show how they could be adapted for the elementary level. (Some had already been adapted from high school materials for the college level.)

In the Moon Problem, the techniques of rank ordering is used. This can be adapted in several ways. First, instead of handing out sheets and having the students read the problem, the teacher might wish to tell a story using puppets or other illustrations. The story could be an imaginary tale about antropomorphic animals, or it could be about children. The story need not be about the moon. It could be about other survival problems. For example, one teacher used this technique in a fourth-grade social studies class for a unit about the migration across

the Great Plains. She asked the students which things they would carry with them if their covered wagon broke down and they had to abandon it. In a bilingual classroom, migrant children might find a situation in which they had to choose items to take on their migratory route especially relevant. Rather than personal survival, students might consider a story about societal survival in which they had to choose which workers of various occupations they would want to save in a disaster. It would be instructive to see whether they would save the traditional community helpers: the policeman, doctor, teacher, etc. or the ranch hand, waitress, grape picker, plumber, etc. Children would find understanding the vocabulary of any of these rank order situations necessary, and a variety of rank ordering tasks could be used to teach different vocabulary, such as household items or occupational names as in the above examples. A picture of the items to be ranked could be used with the word to teach its meaning. Besides vocabulary, the rank order task would also have subject matter content such as history, geography, science, or career education. In additon, the class would have a first-hand opportunity to see cross-cultural differences and similarities. (Would a Chicano boy prefer to take a guitar, a football, or a radio with him on the migrant route? What would an Anglo boy take? Would the girls make different choices altogether?)

Riddles can also be used in the elementary classroom. The teacher might introduce them by reading some riddles in Spanish and English. If the students are beginning to read, he might put some of the simpler ones on the chalkboard or bulletin board with illustrations. Riddles could be used to teach question formation and adjective post-modification versus adjective pre-modification, both of which contrast in English and Spanish. If the teacher wishes to concentrate on question formulation, he might try

try taping the name of a person or thing on a child's back and having the child ask each other child questions about who or what they are. He might make the additional stipulation that if the person or thing is a Spanish word, the student must use Spanish for the questions and if it is an English word, the student must use English. If he wished to stress adjective use, he might have the students make up their own riddles to describe themselves or an object they would like to be.

Instead of using the "Twenty Things I Like to Do" list to teach comparisons, the teacher might want to use it to teach predicate forms. Or it might be changed to "Ten Things I Can Do" and "Ten Things I Like to Do" or "Twenty Things I Want to Do When I Grow Up." With the last two, students could examine their expectations of themselves and what they will have to do to fulfill those expectations. Thus, they would get practice not only in the *would like* plus infinitive and *want* plus infinitive forms, but also in setting goals for themselves.

Instead of using "What I Do Best" as a composition topic, students could use the "I am Proud Whip" (Simon 1972: 134). In this activity, the students rapidly fill in the blank, as in a drill, in the sentence, "I am proud of ...". They can list a personal accomplishment, or they might be instructed to list someone else's accomplishments. This activity can also be developed into a song (Simon: 327). (Where possible the teacher might want to use other "values whips" for oral drills.) The whip gives the student an opportunity to reveal what he thinks is an important accomplishment. If he chooses to participate, he also chooses to affirm his personal worth or the worth of another individual. For some students, this may be a risky venture, so this kind of activity offers an opportunity for the teacher to stress acceptance of what people

say and the ideas of not ridiculing others for what they believe. To illustrate this, he might want to tell or read a story beforehand about people or animals who say something that is ridiculed and show how they coped with the problem.

Elementary students, too, can examine the effect of their personal experiences on their beliefs. Instead of writing about their "First Encounter with the American Indian," they might tell or write about "The First Time I Crossed the Street by Myself," "The First Time I Got Paid for Working," "My First Day at School," "My First Friend," "My First Teacher," or "The Best/Worst Thing That Ever Happened to Me." These could be the subjects of small sharing groups or trios (Simon, 177) in which the students compare and contrast their experiences. Such trios could be used for conversation practice either in Spanish or English (or alternately for both from one session to the next) or as opportunities to consolidate experiences for background materials for short stories or skits to present to the class later. Students could use the skits to illustrate how they solved the problem in the situation or leave the situation open-ended for other students to suggest solutions. The development of skits could be expanded to include imaginary situations in the past (history subject matter) or imaginary situations in nature (science subject matter).

The use of role-playing, as above, is a good method for beginning the activity of wishing. Students might choose not only the situations but also the characters they wanted to play. They could discuss which characters, people, animals, or things they would like to be and why. This is an excellent way to examine cultural beliefs about animals and could also be used with nature films and texts to show that much of what

we attribute to animals depends on our culture, not on scientific fact. Students might try playing both a character they admire and one they dislike. This affords a unique opportunity for the teaches to learn what paralinguistic features impress themselves on youngsters. It could also show what characteristics the children value in others. In these activities, students should become highly aware of cultural differences and similarities. If the activities are presented in an atmosphere of respect and tolerance, all students in the class should come to appreciate these differences and similarities and to feel that both their own values of others have merit.

I have mentioned only a few techniques for using values clarification strategies in the bilingual/bicultureal classroom. There are many other strategies focusing on different areas of value conflict that also could be used or adapted successfully for the elementary bilingual classroom. If a teacher uses even a few of them effectively, I think his rewards will be great. He will find himslef inventing his own strategies and adapting others; he will find also that he has a class that is open to examining its previously held beliefs and thus, open to learning.

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LANGUAGE CHOICE IN BILINGUAL CLASSROOMS

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This article discusses language choice in Spanish bilingual classrooms, based on observations in five kindergartens. The stated objectives for language choice, i.e.: 50% Spanish, 50% English, are compared to actual percentages of Spanish and English used by the adults and children. The amount of teacher talk was also compared to pupil talk, including both "free" pupil responses and choral responses. Functions of teacher language, such as warming or accepting, directing, and correcting children, were also examined in terms of percentages of Spanish and English chosen. Two models were observed, the Concurrent Translation and Alternate Days. In the Concurrent Translation model, it was found: (1) English is used by bilingual teachers over 70% of total class time; (2) that Spanish-speaking pupils responded with very similar language choices; (3) that teacher talk comprise 80-85% of classroom talk; and (4) that English is again the usual choice for warming or accepting the child's contribution, for directing, and for correcting the children. In contrast, the Alternate Days model generated an equal distribution of Spanish and English by teachers and children overall, with more Spanish used for warming and directing. Again, English was the primary choice for correcting children.

It appears that the Concurrent Translation model does not achieve balanced use (50% Spanish and 50% English) by teachers or pupils.

Bilingual theorists and educators agree that the crucial variable in an optimal[1] bilingual classroom is the extent to which the minority child's vernacular is used throughout the curriculum (Andersson and Boyer 1970: 69-124; Mackey 1970:66-72; Gaarder 1970:136-178). The usual rule of thumb is that the child's native language should be utilized equally overall with the dominant language (UNESCO 1953:68-70).

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[1]"Optimal" means a bilingual program whose goal is enhancing proficiency in the child's vernacular while adding the dominant language.

Unfortunately, little quantitative assessment of language choices in bilingual classrooms has been reported. Instead, most studies use anecdotal or impressionistic data based on self-report by bilingual teachers. For example, Lesley (1972:68-72) collected data on 21 bilingual programs in California. Teachers in three classrooms reported using less than 25% English overall; 12 reported suing 50-75% English, and six used English over 75% of the time. Unfortunately, self-report by balanced bilingual speakers is unreliable, since many such speakers are not consciously aware of which language they are using at any given time (Gumperz 1970:6,7).

Townsend (1974:viii) did use a quantitative instrument, Intéraction Analysis (Flanders 1970:28-53), to code 30 bilingual preschool teachers and aides as each taught one Spanish and one English lesson. He found that teachers used significantly more praise and gave more directions during the English lesson, but asked more questions as well as gave more corrections of pupil responses, in the Spanish lesson.

There is other evidence that language choice by adults in bilingual classrooms may shift when the context of use changes. Impressionistic data gathered by Lesley (1972:71-72) indicate that English was the language chosen for formal instruction in the core subjects of mathematics and reading, with Spanish reserved for electives. Shultz (1975:18) found that teachers in bilingual classrooms tend to speak Spanish in a conscious and deliberate marked manner, while using English spontaneously in a casual, unmarked manner. If there are, indeed, different sets of sociolinguistic "rules" of discourse in bilingual classrooms which are

generated by teachers' language choices, bilingual children new to formal educational settings may need to be sensitive to these to succeed in school.

We do know that children quickly learn the relative importance of their own vernacular *vis à vis* the dominant language of the school by noting how much, and in what contexts, it is used by the teachers at school. Examples of such teacher ratings made overt are the choice of language used to address other adults or classroom visitors, or the language choice in notes to parents. One bilingual program has these directions under "Curriculum Teaching Strategies":

> The teacher should address other adults in Spanish in order to show the children that the language has prestige among adults. The teacher should be particularly careful to address outside visitors who know Spanish in this language.
>
> (Ramirez 1972:136)

In this study, quantitative language choices by teachers and pupils in Spanish bilingual kindergarten classrooms were examined. The questions to be answered were:

1. What are the actual percentages of Spanish and English used by the teacher/aide in a complete class session? (Usually just under three hours.)
2. What were the language choices of Spanish-speaking pupils and English-speaking pupils when speaking to the teacher/aide?
3. Did these language choices reflect shifts in language used by the kindergarten pupils?
4. How much pupil talk occurs in bilingual classrooms compared to teacher talk?
5. What language does the teacher/aide choose for: (a) solidarity functions, e.g., warming, accepting, or amplifying pupil talk; (b) directing pupils; and (c) distancing functions, e.g., correcting pupils or "cooling"the atmosphere in the classroom?

The observation procedure used in this study was an adaptation of Flanders' Multiple Coding System (1970:28-53), using categories from the Reciprocal Category System (Ober 1971:37-86).

The investigation in November and December of 1974 included all the Spanish bilingual kindergarten classes, six in number, in a large California city serving a very diverse ethnic population. Four of the classrooms (one, two, three and four) followed an "open classroom" model in widely varying degrees; each utilized Concurrent Translation, i.e., presently material alternately in each language. One classroom (five) was more structural and used a modification of the "Alternate Days" approach (Tucker, Otanes, Sibayan 1970: 281-285). One day English was used until recess, then Spanish until dismissal. The next day Spanish was used until recess, then English until dismissal, and so on. One concurrent translation classroom (six) proved impossible for one person to code, since at least five activities went on simultaneously. Teachers in all classrooms indicated that each language was expected to be used 50% of the time. The ethnic mix in each classroom was fairly consistent: about 65% native Spanish-speaking children. Four of the teachers were native Spanish speakers, the remaining one was very fluent, and all classrooms had native Spanish-speaking aides. Three of the classrooms (two, three, and four) had self-contained formal English-as-a-second-language (ESL) training about 20 minutes per day. Spanish-as-second-language (SSL) was also offered, in varying degrees, in most classrooms. On the days that were observed or coded, a bilingual television program provided the SSL in two programs, another used the Michigan Oral materials in Spanish for 20 minutes, another teacher made her own materials, while two planned to start SSL later in the year.

Coding in the concurrent translation classrooms covered a complete one-day class session (two-and-one-half hours coded at three-second

intervals). The recess was not coded. The Alternate Days coding spanned two consecutive days, in order to equalize the time blocks devoted to each language, since recess, which marked a language switch, was not at midpoint in the session. An average of 800 total talk tallies were recorded for each of the concurrent classrooms, indicating about 40 minutes of teacher-pupil interaction per class session.

Results and Discussion

1. What are the actual percentages of total teacher/aide talk in Spanish and in English in a complete class session?

In the four classrooms utilizing concurrent translation as the language model (one, two, three, and four), English was spoken most of the time.

TABLE 1
Total Teacher Talk

Classroom	Total Tallies	% of Total Teacher/Aide Talk Spanish	English
1	474	29	71
2	529	16	84
3	625	28	72
4	766	41	59
5	2,170	47	53

The range was 59-84%, with an average of 72% English used during a typical session.

In contrast, the Alternate Periods model (five) produced nearly equal amounts of English and Spanish.

Judging from classrooms, it appears that the concurrent translation model does not achieve balanced language used by teachers and aides.

2. What were the language choices of Spanish-speaking children when they spoke to the teacher/aide?

TABLE 2
Language Choice of Spanish Speaking Pupils

Classroom	Total Tallies	% of Spanish Speaking Pupils Responses In Spanish	English
1	15	7	93
2	84	17	83
3	106	45	55
4	138	48	52
5	109	49	51

By inspection of Table 2, it can be seen that Spanish-speaking children spoke English to the teacher/aide an avaerage of 71% of the time in the concurrent translation classroom (one, two, three, and four), with the range being 52-93%. Again, the Alternate Days classroom (five) maintained parity in language choice by pupils.

There was considerable symmetry between teacher talk and Spanish-speaking pupil talk in all classrooms considered.

It appears that Spanish-speaking children reflect the language choices of teacher/aide, regardless of the bilingual model used (concurrent translation or alternate days).

English-speaking children do not appear on the Table, since they chose to speak Spanish very, very infrequently. The handful of recurrences were stereotyped responses to greetings in Spanish, or in choral response during the Spanish-as-second-language component in two programs. No instances of spontaneous use of Spanish by Anglo children were noted in the data gathering.

3. How much total pupil speech (Spanish plus English) occurs in bilingual classrooms?

   a. How does this compare with the amount of teacher talk?
   b. How much of total pupil talk is choral response, i.e., repetition by the pupil group of material cued by the teacher: "Children, say: Today is Monday...," or (holding up picture of cat) "What is Children?"...

Total pupil talk appears to comprise a small percentage, as compared to total talk. The range was 11-30%; and the average was 21%. When the amount of choral response was subtracted, the average of total pupil talk

TABLE 3
Total of All Pupil Talk, Individual and Choral, as Percentage of Total Classroom Talk

Classroom	Raw Tallies Total Talk Teacher Talk Plus Pupil Talk	Percentage of Pupil Talk Over Total Talk		
		Individual	Choral	Total
1	588	9	2	11
2	716	21	5	26
3	814	12	11	23
4	1,096	24	6	30
5	2,521	7	7	14

drops to 15% of total talk. Bearing in mind that class size averaged 26 pupils, it appears that the teacher dominates classroom discourse rather completely, as has been noted in other subject matter areas and at other grade levels (Flanders 1967:285; Bellack 1966: 84-85).

4. What language does the teacher/aide choose for warming, accepting, or amplifying pupil remarks?

TABLE 4
Teacher Language Choice for Warming,
Accepting, or Amplifying Pupil Speech

Classroom	Total Number Of Events	Total Percentage Spanish	English
1	16	19	81
2	69	6	94
3	74	19	81
4	109	49	51
5	103	72	28

It appears that teachers/aides choose English 77% of the time on the average (range 51-94%) as the language to express acceptance or solidarity in bilingual classrooms using concurrent translation. Only one classroom in this model (four) used nearly equal amounts of Spanish and English. In contrast, the alternate period model teacher/aide used much more Spanish than English (72 versus 28%) for warming, accepting, or amplifying pupil statements.

TABLE 5
Teacher Language Choice to Direct Pupils

Classroom	Total Number Of Events	Total Percentage In Spanish	English
1	59	36	64
2	168	20	80
3	113	32	68
4	153	34	66
5	675	62	38

4b. What language does the teacher/aide choose for directing pupils?

In the concurrent translation classrooms, English was again the choice, 72% of the time on an average. In contrast, in the alternate periods model (five), adults used English 38% of the time to direct pupils.

4c. What language does the teacher/aide used for correcting pupils or "cooling" the classroom?

TABLE 6
Teacher Language Choice to Correct or "Cool" Pupils

Classroom	Total Number of Events	Perecentage of Events In Spanish	English
1	50	14	86
2	43	9	91
3	12	42	58
4	74	32	68
5	82	39	61

English was utilized overwhelmingly in all classrooms using concurrent translation for all disciplinary speech. The average was 76%. This preponderant use of English held up in the alternate periods model as well, though to a lesser extent.

It appears that in bilingual classrooms using a concurrent translation format for language, the teachers/aides speak English 72% of the time on the average. This apparently serves as a model to native Spanish-speaking pupils, who speak to the teacher/aide 71% of the time in English.

This represents a dramatic shift in language use by Spanish-speaking five-year-olds. In the short span of about nine weeks of formal schooling, children who speak only Spanish in their homes, neighborhoods and churches,[2] are apparently already reflecting the vastly different language input in the schools by bilingual teachers/aides.

When we look at the choices made by the teachers/aides in the concurrent translation model for the basic, important language functions in the classroom, we can begin to see the nature of the impetus for this

[2]A Pupil's Language Use Inventory (Fishman et al. 1971:157-176) given in Spanish to all Spanish-speaking pupils indicated that Spanish was spoken overwhelmingly (95%)in the domains of home,neighborhood,church and recess.

rapid change. For example, instead of using the vernacular Spanish of the majority of the pupils to express solidarity (warming, accepting, amplifying), the teacher/aides chose to use English 77% of the time. Directives for classroom instruction, very important to beginners in formal education, were given in English 72% of the time. Finally, 76% of all disciplinary speech was given in English. Indeed, the major reason teachers/aides switched from Spanish to English was to correct pupil misbehavior. This phenomenon was also noted by Schultz (1975:18) who saw it as another example of an implicit decision by bilingual staff that English was the "advantageous and natural language of the classroom."

Recall that the ethnic mix in the bilingual classrooms was 65% Spanish-speaking, with about half of these children being monolingual Spanish. It seems fair to conclude that the language choices of the teachers/aides in the concurrent translation model were far from optimal: they did not reflect the classroom ethnic mix, nor the communicative repertoires of the majority of pupils served, nor the goals of bilingual education. Instead of producing bilingual pupils, a language environment so heavily English-dominated discriminates against Spanish-speaking pupils and discourages Anglo pupils from learning Spanish as well. Rather than being bilingual education, capitalizing on the unique linguistic and cultural backgrounds of Latino children, the concurrent translation model studied here is a rapid transition-to-English program. Despite a sincere and conscious commitment to bilingual teaching by the teachers/aides, they seem overwhelmed by the pull of the dominant language and the dominant culture, with the result that English again becomes the classroom language.

The investigator recommends that the alternate periods model be utilized more generally, since it appears far more likely to foster the objectives of bilingual education than does concurrent translation. This model maintained equivalency between Spanish and English, both in teacher talk and pupil talk. In addition, solidarity functions of languages were generally in the child's vernacular, while cooling and correcting functions were more equal in each language than in the concurrent translation classrooms. Additionally, a consistent language model was presented to the pupils, with switching occurring *very* infrequently.

The investigator further recommends that the model of the totally open classroom which proved impossible for one person to code also be investigated further. Numerical data were gathered from coding two adults out of four and indicated that somewhat over 50% of classroom teacher talk was in Spanish. The absence of teacher domination and of choral response or elicited repetition was refreshing, and the extent of peer speech and interaction was unequalled in other classrooms. Children worked at interesting tasks in groups formed spontaneously, while children needing work in content areas were invited to complete reading and math units available in Spanish and English. Since a variety of activities was going on at all times, the necessary opportunities for language practice in meaningful situations were maximal.

It seems to the investigator that an alternate periods language format in such an open classroom would be the ideal bilingual classroom.

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MEASURING VALUES IN MULTILINGUAL SETTINGS*

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Spanish and English versions of a values assessment instrument were administered to a group of second language students of Junior and Senior High School age. The instruments were back-translated forms of the Rokeach *Value Survey*, and were used in an attempt to provide current, site-specific information for use by an educational program in a multicultural/multilingual environment.

The results of the assessment suggest a high degree of similarity between expressed values hierarchies of the students involved. It is suggested that the information obtained from the survey provides a stable basis for the pursuit of a goal common, if not universal, in such settings: the peaceful and equitable coexistence of groups heterogeneous in linguistic and cultural background.

A significant proportion of the suspicion and lack of trust which often characterizes the relationship between culturally diverse groups in contact is hypothesized to result from uncertainty generated by both a lack of information and the stereotypic inaccuracy of that information which might be available. It is suggested that the instruments used in the study are capable of quickly and easily providing accurate information which might in turn readily be transformed into appropriate action.

An important, but often overlooked, aspect of special programs designed to implement language policies in communities which are characterized by linguistic and cultural plurality, is that striking similarities - as well as striking contrasts - frequently exist across groups. A priori educational decisions are often made based on the mistaken notion that the cause of peaceful and equitable intercultural coexistence will always be advanced by focusing attention on cultural differences and by passing lightly over or even purposefully ignoring those similarities that might exist.

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Numerous models for multilingual education exist. Mackey's (1970) preliminary typology (which deals only with patterns of language distribution) enumerates no less than ninety. That number can easily be multiplied when factors are incorporated from an analysis of socio-cultural variables. Concentration on variables which only exhibit differences greatly reduces the theoretically possible total number of models and thereby increases the probability of the application of an inappropriate model. It is toward the end of putting cultural differences and cultural similarities into clearer perspective and of decreasing the probability of the inappropriate application of educational models that the research reported in this article is directed.

In Index to Culture

Culture is the totality of the way of life evolved by a societal group (Zintz 1963). This totality includes such elements as religion, government, economics, recreation, family organization and education. It is visibly reflected in the behaviors and beliefs of participants in the culture.

A comparison of the "culture" of any two groups, then would require a cataloging of the behaviors and beliefs peculiar to each group. A point-by-point comparison across groups should then result in statements which point out interesting and enlightening facts about the two groups in question. This describes in a gross way the work of the cultural anthropologist. Very few programs of bilingual education in the United States can claim a staff anthropologist, however; so for descriptions of the groups involved at each project site, project administrators often rely on whatever characterizations of the groups

are available. For example:

> The Cuban children tend to be outgoing, warm, expressive, talented, versatile, and resourceful. They value highly family ties and their family units, which extend in many cases to include grandparents, cousins, aunts and uncles. Cuban children are eager to learn, and they respect authority and accept graciously and corrections and suggestions for their improvement (Klovekorn, Madera and Nardone 1975:256).

This description makes general statements about the behaviors and beliefs of the *Cuban child*, a cultural archetype who may or may not exist in the immediate environment of the authors of the passage. As the article from which the passage is extracted is disseminated nationwide, however, the value derived from the exposition of the archetype becomes analogous to an inverse algebraic function involving time and space. The *Cuban child* in Mrs. Elder's seventh grade class in Pokawanee, Pennsylvania for example, is embodied in the form of a thirteen-year-old Hector Garcia who was born in Orlando,Florida of a second generation Cuban father who speaks little English and an Eurasian mother who speaks little Spanish. Hector's family migrated from Florida to Pennsylvania following whatever agricultural work was available. His father obtained employment of a more permanent nature in Pokawanee and decided to stay - at least through the winter. Mrs. Elder reads the article from which I quoted and rightfully wonders how the characterization of the *Cuban child* applies to her new seventh grader.

In a small town in southeastern Pennsylvania, the public school system faced a situation similar in kind to the one faced by our fictitious Mrs. Elder. A relatively large number of families had moved to the area from Colomai, South America. The members of the local school board agreed that the children of these new families deserved an equal

opportunity to take advantage of the quality education provided by their school system. A program of multilingual education was conceived, funded and implemented. One important objective of the program addresses itself to the question of cross-cultural understanding and the promotion of peaceful intergroup coexistence, a noble and humanitarian goal in our culturally plural society. In attempting to implement this objective, however, does the multilingual program rely on the abundant supply of characterizations of cultural groups similar to the one cited above? Does the program engage a cultural anthropologist to do a comparative study in depth? Neither.

The project staff reasons that cultural differences and similarities are likely to exist, and since culture is reflected in both behaviors and beliefs, perhaps a "cultural index" might be established by measuring one of the other or both. It is upon the results of an investigation into the "beliefs" construct that the remainder of this article reports.

The Study

To find a suitable way to measure this construct, attention was initially turned to the sociolinguistic research referred to as "language attitude" study (see Cooper and Fishman, 1973, for a current overview of that field). Attitude can be defined as "an organization of several beliefs around a specific object of situation" (Rokeach 1973:18). It was felt that by measuring the way that subjects felt toward language as an attitude object and toward language as a group referent, an index to the beliefs construct could be obtained. This notion was not rejected and a project of language attitude measurement is currently underway.

However, since attitudes are defined as *organizations* of beliefs around an object or situation it was felt that a more immediately useful less ambiguous and more stable index to culture could be established by attempting to measure the more enduring individual beliefs that are referred to as "values" (Allport 1961; Handy 1970; Maslow 1959; Rokeach 1973). Whereas attitudes represent organizations of beliefs, values are singular beliefs of a very specific nature. Rokeach (1973) defines values as lasting beliefs that one's way of *doing* or *being* are personally and socially preferable to an opposite way of doing or being.

The instruments employed to measure values were back-translated[1] versions of the Rokeach *Value Survey* (Rokeach 1967; see Appendix). The back-translation resulted in only one modification to the original *Value Survey:* SPIRITUAL TRANQUILITY substitutes for INNER HARMONY. (See Appendix.) This survey, in its parallel forms, was administed to two small groups (total N=31): the Junior and Senior High School age[2]

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[1]"Back-translation" is a process by which an instrument created in one language is converted into two parallel but "decentralized" (Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike 1973:40) instruments in two different languages.

[2]Two independent studies would support the use of the *Value Survey* with students of this age group: (1) McLellan (1970) reports that three-week test-retest reliabilities range from .62 for seventh grade students to .74 for eleventh grade students. (2) My own work subsequent to the study presently reported has shown that for a sample of 280 English/Spanish multilinguals of this age group, coefficients of concordance (Kendall's W) average .89 (significant at $p = .05$) for English-dominant students, and .75 for Spanish-dominant students. These coefficients were computed on the results of the administration of the *Value Survey* in each of the students' languages with a period of one week intervening. Were the two forms (i.e., Spanish and English) of the instrument semantically tyrannical, and similarly, were the concepts involved outside the control of the subjects, it would be difficult to explain this tendency toward similar response across languages. The sources of the differences that would seem to exist are the subject of a current investigation.

TABLE 1

Summary of Analyses of Variance Between Values Ranked by Native Speakers of Spanish and Values Ranked by Native Speakers of English

Value	Spanish Speakers Mean	s.d.	F[1]	English Speakers Mean	s.d.
A COMFORTABLE LIFE	11.58	4.60	3.70	14.63	4.09
AN EXCITING LIFE	13.58	4.85	.43	12.53	4.01
A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT	10.42	4.06	.92	8.84	4.66
A WORLD AT PEACE	7.08	4.32	4.72	10.73	4.70
A WORLD OF BEAUTY	12.92	4.25	1.67	10.84	4.41
EQUALITY	6.83	2.94	1.82	8.89	4.72
FAMILY SECURITY	6.92	4.50	6.97	10.42	2.91
FREEDOM	7.83	5.54	.15	7.10	4.82
HAPPINESS	4.50	4.30	5.59	7.68	3.19
MATURE LOVE	8.50	5.38	.14	7.79	4.82
NATIONAL SECURITY	13.33	3.91	1.22	14.74	3.12
PLEASURE	14.33	3.70	.19	14.84	2.79
SALVATION	10.67	4.22	17.10*	3.63	4.83
SELF RESPECT	6.67	3.92	.18	7.36	4.76
SOCIAL RECOGNITION	11.58	3.84	.22	10.68	5.84
SPIRITUAL TRANQUILITY	6.92	3.20	2.77	4.89	3.34
TRUE FRIENDSHIP	4.08	4.19	.36	4.89	3.35
WISDOM	11.50	3.21	24.79*	6.16	2.71

* = $P < .01$, critical F = 7.60 for 1 & 29 d.f.

[1]The justification for using a parametric statistic (F) for apparently ordinal data involves an argument which is clearly beyond the scope of this article. The reader is referred to Baker , Hardyck and Petrinovich, 1966.

Colombian immigrants at the local Middle/High School, and a group of their English-speaking peers who were enrolled in Spanish as a Foreign Language. This instrument involves the subjects in a rank-ordering task. Eighteen terminal values[3] are presented to each subject and the subject is asked to place a "1" beside the value that is the most important to him, "2" beside the second and so forth through "18." The day before the *Value Survey* was administered, a native language proficiency measurement employing parallel back-translated cloze procedures was administered to

[3]Terminal values are defined as singular beliefs concerning desirable end-states of existence (ways of being) and are contrasted to instrumental values which are beliefs concerning desirable modes of conduct (ways of doing).

both groups. This precaution was taken simply to assure the project staff that the subjects were capable of handling the ranking task outside of possible interference from low language proficiency. This procedure confirmed that members of both groups had the requisite language to handle the task.

The results of the administration of the *Value Surveys* are summarized in Table 1. These results, *of purely local applicability*, appear to reveal that the two groups differ significantly only in the ranking that each gives to the values SALVATION and WISDOM. Insofar as the eighteen terminal values represented by the *Value Survey* provide an index to enduring beliefs held by the two groups of subjects, and insofar as this index can be thought of as an "index to culture," these results serve to bring a major contrast between the groups sharply into focus, a contrast, I hasten to add, which is highlighted against a background of a series of similarities. The English-speaking subjects weigh heavily the teachings of their fundamentalist religion (SALVATION) and the mature understanding of life (WISDOM) which that religion allows them to have. This is valuable information for each group to have. It seems to provide a basis-in-fact from which each group might deal with the other. It seems clear, more importantly, that the similarities between the groups far outstrip the differences.

It would also seem clear that had this multilingual project proceeded, as many might, to focus attention on "cultural differences" based on any one of a number of widely available characterizations of "Latin" groups and "Anglo" groups, it focus would not have been as sharp as it could have been. Instead, the project, by using the *Value Survey*, had at

hand a currently valid, site-specific characterization of the two groups in contact. As a result of the information obtained from the *Value Survey*, the project immediately began to incorporate specific orientations to local religious practices into the situation-based second language curriculum (Bauder 1975) for the Colombian students. Additionally, it seeks to make clear to both groups (via activities, for example, in a school-sponsored "club"to which members of both language groups belong) that with respect to the way that they feel about some fundamental values. (TRUE FRIENDSHIP, SOCIAL RECOGNITION, and SELF RESPECT are obvious examples from Table 1 which are particularly meaningful to adolescent groups) they will find that their peers from the other language group generally feel the same way.

Having access to the results of the *Value Survey* administered to the specific groups in contact certainly provides the project with the beginnings of a foundation for pursuing its objective of peaceful and equitable intercultural coexistence. A good deal of the suspicion and lack of trust that often characterizes daily intercultural contact can be attributed to fear generated by uncertainty. By accurately assessing at least one major component of cultural variation, and by sharing the results of that assessment with the groups in question, uncertainty can be diminished. Classroom teachers and school administrators appear to profit immensely from the knowledge that the different cultural groups in the school share some very basic orientations.

It is clearly of urgent importance that those who seek to select and implement models of multicultural/multilingual education study each local situation as thoroughly as time and other resources permit. The

Value Survey would appear to be one measure capable of quickly and easily providing quite valuable informati-n. Whether that information accents similarity, as this study found it to, or diversity, as is surely a possibility, is not as important as the fact that the data are current and site-specific and are readily transformed into appropriate action.

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APPENDIX
THE VALUE SURVEY[4]

English version

Instructions: This is a scientific study of value systems. There are no right or wrong answers in this study. The best answer is your own personal opinion.

[4]The *Value Survey* is subject to a copyright owned by Milton Rokeach, Professor of Sociology and Psychology, Washington State University. All correspondence concerning the reproduction of these instruments should be addressed to Halgren Tests, 873 Persimmon Avenue, Sunnyvale, Calif. 98407.

Below is a list of 18 values in alphabetical order. We are interested in finding out the relative importance of these values to you.

Study the list carefully. Then place a "1" next to the value which is most important to you, place a "2" next to the value which is second most important, etc. The value which is least important should be marked "18."

When you have completed ranking all the values, go back and check over your list. Feel free to make any changes. Please take all the time you need to think about this, so that the end result truly represents your values.

_____A COMFORTABLE LIFE (a prosperous life)
_____AN EXCITING LIFE (a stimulating, active life)
_____A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT (lasting contribution)
_____A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)
_____A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)
_____EQUALITY (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
_____FAMILY SECURITY (taking care of loved ones)
_____FREEDOM (independence, free choice)
_____HAPPINESS (contentedness)
_____MATURE LOVE (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
_____NATIONAL SECURITY (protection from attack)
_____PLEASURE (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
_____SALVATION (saved, eternal life)
_____SELF-RESPECT (self-esteem)

_____SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, admiration)
_____SPIRITUAL TRANQUILITY (freedom from inner conflicts)
_____TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close companionship)
_____WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)

Spanish version

Instructions: Este es un estudio científico de valores. No hay contestaciones correctas o incorrectas. La mejor contestación es aquella que expresa su opinión personal.

Aquí encontrará una lista de 18 valores en orden alfabético. Estamos interesados en encontrar la importancia relativa que estos valores tienen para usted. Escriba un número "2" para el que le sigue y así sucesivamente. Aquel valor que es menos importante para usted debe de ser el número "18."

Cuando haya terminado de numerar los valores en orden de importancia, vuelva sobre ellos y revíselos. Siéntase en libertad de cambiar el orden. Por favor tome todo el tiempo que sienta es necesario para que el producto final sea representativo de sus valores.

_____AMISTAD VERDADERA (Compañia íntima)
_____AMOR MADURO (intimitad sexual y espiritual)
_____FELICIDAD (ser contento)
_____IGUALDAD (hermandad, igual oportunidad para todos)
_____LIBERTAD (independencia, escojer libremente)
_____PLACER (una vida placentera con tiempo libre)
_____RECONOCIMIENTO SOCIAL (respeto, admiración)
_____RESPETO PROPIO (estimación propia)
_____SABIDURÍA (una entendimiento maduro de la vida)
_____SALVACIÓN (salvado, vida eterna)
_____SEGURIDAD FAMILIAR (el cuido de los amados)
_____SEGURIDAD NACIONAL (protección de ser atacado)
_____TRANQUILIDAD ESPIRITUAL (libertad de conflictos internos)
_____UNA VIDA CÓMODA (una vida prośpera)
_____UNA VIDA EXCITANTE (una vida estimulante y activa)
_____UN MUNDO DE BELLEZA (belleza de la naturaleza y el arte)
_____UN MUNDO EN PAZ (libre de guerra y conflictos)
_____UN SENTIDO DE HABER LOGRADO ALGO (contribución perdurable)

(NOTE: These lists of eighteen values appear again on a second page in each of the instruments used in the study. The ranking task inevitably involves erasures as a subject is seriously considering the relative importance of each value. The list on the first page functions as a worksheet; the second list on the following page serves to allow the subject to record his 'final' decisions.)

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITIONS PERTINENT TO THE TEXT

TEFL (EFL) Teaching English as a Foreign Language...identifies programs of English language instruction in parts of the world where some other language is spoken, e.g., just as the study of Chinese in United States schools is classed as "foreign language" study, so the study of English in France comes under the heading of "foreign language" study. An English language program in Turkey, therefore, would be an example of a TEFL program.

TESL (ESL) Teaching English as a Second Language...identifies programs of English language instruction found in English speaking areas but intended to benefit non-English speaking persons in those areas, e.g., an English language program of instruction in London for Italian speakers living there would be an example of a TESL program; all English language courses for Spanish speakers offered in the New York City public schools are TESL programs. We can now make the following TEFL/TESL distinction: the same English language course for non-English speakers offered in Mayaguez, Puerto Rico and in Brooklyn, New York, would be given two different classifications, the one in Mayaguez would be an example of TEFL, and the one in Brooklyn would be TESL.

TESOD (ESOD) or SESD Teaching English to Speakers of Other Dialects or Standard English as a Second Dialect ...identifies programs of General Standard English instruction, generally found in English speaking communities and intended to benefit English speakers who use a non-standard pattern of English, e.g., a course in General Standard American English for Cockney English speakers would be an example of TESOD.

TESOL (ESOL) Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages...is simply a broader classification of convenience to include all three already identified under one heading, i.e., TEFL,TESL, and TESOD are all specialized activities under the heading of TESOL.

These classifications can be conveniently projected to include other language study areas, e.g., S for Spanish, C for Chinese, G for German, P or Portuguese, N for Navajo, etc. For Spanish language study programs for example, we can establish the following classifications:

TSFL (SFL) Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language... for Spanish language programs found in China, Japan, England, Turkey, the United States, etc.

TSSOD (SSOD) Teaching Spanish to Speakers of Other Dialects...as in the case of standard Castilian courses for Andalusian Spanish speakers.

TSSOL (SSOL) Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages...a convenience classification which would include TSFL,TSSL,and TESSOD.

English as a Second Language is also used to identify the use of English (By common agreement) as a lingua franca in multilingual areas, as is the case in some of the new countries of Africa where the citizenry is composed of numerous different speech communities, and where no satisfactory agreement can be reached on making any one of the native languages the "official" language of the new nation. A temporary and makeshift solution is to make some outside language, be it English or French, or Portuguese, or some other, the language of government and official transactions. This type of solution avoids intense, internal jealousies but commits everyone to having to learn a second language.

Services Provided by the New York State Education Department, Bureau of Bilingual Education

The Bureau of Bilingual Education, with regional offices in Albany, Buffalo, New York City and Long Island,provides services to the State in bilingual education/English as a second language programs. The Bureau's activities, presently involving twenty-two different language groups, include the following:

I. Technical Assistance to school districts in areas such as: on-site teacher training workshops; school-community relations; desegregation planning; and preparation of proposals for funding. Technical assistance is also provided by letter and telephone.

II. Monitoring of ESEA Title VII, ESEA Title I and State Chapter 720 programs in the schools.

III. Publications presently include: Haitian, Chinese, Spanish, Native American, Greek, French and English as a second language materials, documents on bilingual programs and testing, teachers' handbooks, and a quarterly newsletter.

IV. Media Projects include: a series of public service announcements on bilingual education, video-tapes of conference presentations such as Judith Nine-Curt's presentation on Puerto Rican body language, Spanish translations of several films, and a half-hour video tape on bilingual education.

V. Resource Library (in the Albany office) includes a wide range of materials in bilingual education and English as a second language. Upon request, materials are available on loan to schools throughout the State.

VI. Program Planning and Coordination for bilingual education, including the gathering of statistics demonstrating the need for (and performance

of) bilingual education programs.

VII. Bilingual Higher Education services are provided by Bureau of Bilingual Education personnel working in the Grants Administration Office.

VIII. Bilingual Migrant Programs are developed and coordinated for migrant children throughout the State.

The Bureau of Bilingual Education serves thousands of children and adults in all regions of the State. For more information, please call:

Albany Office:	
Coordinating and Central New York	(518) 474-8775
Buffalo Office:	
Western New York	(716) 686-2087
Long Island Office:	
Long Island and Westchester	(516) 997-8700 ext. 370
New York City Office:	
New York City Area	(212) 488-7294
Higher Education Office:	
Statewide	(518) 474-5705